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ABSTRACT

Currently, demands are being made on schools from pressure groups involved in the so-called "back to basics" movement. This handbook was written in response to those demands with the stated purpose that curriculum workers need a system to distinguish valid educational options from current fads and trends. A model of these options is offered, which divides their philosophies into three contrasting designs that can be used in day-to-day practice in the school. The three designs represent educational approaches ranging from behaviorism to pragmatism to existentialism. The basic beliefs underlying such concepts as motivation and learning conditions are listed for the reader. A discussion then follows concerning instructional behavior, curriculum, organizational design, resources, general physical descriptions, and evaluation procedures congruent with the beliefs of each design. The document concludes by recommending a focus on the philosophy of education and an understanding of relationships between educational points of view and actual school procedures. (Author/LD)

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Back to Basics: Multiple Perspectives

Russell Dobson
Professor of Curriculum and Instruction

Judith Shelton Dobson
Professor of Applied Behavioral Studies

College of Education
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma

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Back to Basics: Multiple Perspectives

Russell Dobson and Judith Shelton Dobson

Table of Contents

Section		Page
I.	Roots of Conflicting Rhetoric	1
	Basic Questions	2
	Critical Issues	2
	Summary	4
II.	Back to Basics—A Model for Dialogue	4
	A Model for Curriculum Dialogue	5
III.	Design A	7
	Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?	8
	Educational Practices	10
	Summary	12
IV.	Design B	12
	Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?	13
	Educational Practices	15
	Summary	19
V.	Design C	19
	Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?	21
	Educational Practices	22
	Summary	26
VI.	Epilogue: Language as a Diversion Tool	26
	Bibliography	27

Section I

Roots of Conflicting Rhetoric

Today's elementary schools, like other public institutions, are a subject of concern to the taxpayer. The school is obligated to meet the educational needs of each child, a task that has always been difficult and complicated, and is increasingly demanding today because of social, economic and political problems.

Some of the adult concerns in modern life that are being aggressively expressed toward practices in the schools are:

- inflating costs of education,
- early and persistent anxiety of parents about their child's ability to get into college,
- increasing importance placed upon vocation and citizenship training, and
- heightened regard for educational needs of special groups of children, such as the culturally different, learning disabled and intellectually talented.

Pressures for change that have resulted in controversy center around the following topics:

- theory-practice dilemma,
- the grading, marking, and reporting system,
- discipline,

- formal academic learning,
- ability grouping,
- student motivation,
- academic excellence or minimal competency,
- teacher performance (quality),
- parent involvement, and
- emphasis on the humanities, including the arts.

Educational decisions relative to these matters are being made all over the country. Innovative programs are being discarded, and new programs of "excellence" are being initiated. There exists the danger of embracing different methods, techniques and programs wholeheartedly and noncritically.

In a time when educators are overwhelmingly concerned with justifying what they are doing and citizens are eager to hold them accountable, is it not appropriate to attempt to make sense out of the controversy surrounding the purposes and function of the school? This section is committed to identifying the roots of conflicting rhetoric in the hope of facilitating the work of responsible leaders as they appraise current schooling practices.

Ebel (1972) raises questions relative to the purpose of schooling. His first question is: "If the schools are to be accountable for the performance of their pupils, the question that immediately arises is, what performance (p. 3)?" He continues with a second query: "What should be the relative emphasis placed on affective dispositions as opposed to cognitive capabilities (p. 4)?"

Basic Questions

In an effort to resolve the issues, questions similar to the following need to be posed and seriously considered:

- What constitutes a quality civilization?
- What human or humane skills does one need in order to participate effectively in a quality civilization?
- How do we want young children to be different as a consequence of a schooling experience?
- What kind of criteria are necessary for the realization of these goals?
- What are the major social problems confronting contemporary society?
- What might the schools have done to contribute to these social problems?
- What do I value? or What is important?
- How does a human-experience-labeled schooling make a difference?

These are complex questions for which there probably is no one or best answer. No doubt, responses provide each individual with his/her own answer to the broader question, "What are the basics?" However, gaining consensus among individuals is quite another matter.

Critical Issues

Theory-Practice Dilemma. As teachers have increased their militancy, professors have lost credibility with their constituents. An antitheoretical bias seems to be prevalent among many teachers. College classes are seen as irrelevant and not related to the day to day operations of the classroom. On the other hand, professors are frustrated by the lack of attention given to theory in decision-making at the public school level. In an age of inexhaustible ideas the temptation has been to adopt new ideas indiscriminately and apply them inappropriately. With only a superficial understanding of the basic theories on which innovations are based, we tend to implement them unwisely, and when they do not yield the expected results we reject the innovations as hastily as we accepted them.

Grading, Marking and Reporting System. Those who believe that grading is a minor problem are simply not cognizant of what is happening in the schools. Grading, marking and reporting determine more teaching-learning situations than most people will ever imagine. Students from kindergarten through graduate school realize that grading dominates most of their learning. Teachers and school administrators grapple with parents about the fairness of grades. Whenever and wherever teaching and learning occur, grades or grading procedure are a grim reality for most people.

Current grading practices are viewed by some as a primitive system which categorizes participants so that only a few are successful. The source of the categorization scheme is the normal curve. The normal curve distribution is most appropriate to chance and random activity and therefore, is definitely not sacred. (Bloom 1968; Van Hoven, 1972; Bailey, 1976; Evans, 1976; Bellanca and Kirschenbaum, 1976; Simon, 1977).

The apparent discrepancy existing among various camps concerning grades centers around accepted "truths" about grading. Curwin (1976, p. 38) identifies four of these considered truths: "(1) learning requires evaluation, (2) grades are motivators, (3) grades are, or can be, objective, and (4) grades are needed as a screening device for colleges,

graduate schools and employers." These four points are sources of disagreement as far as grading and evaluation are concerned and must be dealt with by clear thinkers as they attempt to resolve the grading dilemma.

Discipline. Today, behavior problems of school children are a subject of increasing concern and interest. The attitudes of parents, teachers, lay public, and school administrators toward the disciplining of pupils have received critical examination the past decade as the result of two separate, but closely related factors: (1) the current attacks on public schools, and (2) the highly publicized examples of juvenile delinquency. Success and failure of teachers are frequently reported in terms of pupil control. The maintenance of order and discipline in the classroom is often rated at the top of the list of problems teachers consider as their major difficulties.

Although there is wide variation in the interpretation of what constitutes adequate discipline in the classroom and how to attain it, there seems to be near uniformity of opinion that unless teachers and pupils work together in harmony toward desired ends, little of value can be accomplished.

Academic Excellence and/or Minimal Competency. Increasingly, educators are finding themselves involved in the minimal competency movement. Several states have determined that students must meet statewide reading, writing, and arithmetic standards before promotion or graduation.

Much of the lay public, and an increasing number of educators, see the job of the school as quite simple—to help pupils learn. Priority, they say, should be assigned to cultivation of cognitive competence. Basic hard-liners, according to Brodinsky (1977, p. 524), are proposing simplistic demands for the so-called 3 R's with "... (1) minimal competency, (2) proficiency testing, and (3) a performance-based curriculum."

On the other hand, moderates or liberals, depending on one's preferential label, are somewhat skeptical of what they see as a limited view of schooling. Rogers and Baron (1976, p. 311) point to changes in our American life style that have an effect on the academic performance of students.

Opponents to the hard core academic excellence movement are not opposed to teaching basics, but rather question a limited perspective of what constitutes basics. They see academic excellence as incorporating, along with the 3 R's, the ability to think, analyze problems, make wise decisions, and develop confidence in one's self. They opt for an expanded view of basics: the development of life skills that lead to the competencies needed for personal growth, for successful existence as a citizen, consumer, job holder, taxpayer, and a member of a family.

What was excellence yesterday may not constitute excellence today nor be considered excellence in 10 or 15 years. Educators must begin diligently to examine and discuss the meaning of academic excellence.

Ability Grouping. The issues involving homogeneous and heterogeneous grouping frequently are reduced to the question of whether or not to practice "ability" grouping.

Homogeneous grouping is a practice wherein the total student population is divided into instructional groups according to some criterion of likeness. The basic premise in class assignment by ability grouping is the belief that learning is facilitated when children of similar potential abilities or academic achievement are together for instruction.

Advocates of homogeneous grouping are vociferous in expounding the merits of this arrangement. Strengths proclaimed by proponents are: (1) special attention may be paid to children's abilities or talents; (2) superior academic achievement may be attained; (3) materials and procedures may be adapted more easily; and (4) administrative procedures may be facilitated.

Opponents of ability grouping argue that: (1) children are usually typed and placed at one level permanently; (2) the organizational patterns may become a rigid administrative pattern; (3) a balanced curriculum is difficult to maintain; (4) segregation of children is inconsistent with democratic values; (5) teachers are encouraged to believe that children are alike; and (6) stimulation by peers of various abilities and talents is lacking.

Student Motivation. Controversy surrounding student motivation is centered around the argument of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Some educators submit that adults, because of life experience, know better than children what the children should be when they grow up. The task of teachers is to determine strategies for getting children to do what they should do. In order to achieve this goal, teachers establish a system of positive reinforcement.

Opponents of this approach to student motivation do not deny that positive reinforcement is more satisfying than negative reinforcement. However, they argue that both are externally directed. They fear that over an extended period of time children will reach the point where they perform only when an incentive is available. They further

submit that if educators are committed to the notion of the self-directed learner then placing an excessive amount of value on behavior modification techniques may delay unnecessarily, if not permanently, the learner's acceptance of responsibility for his own learning.

Quality of Teacher. Negative postures relative to the quality of teachers is presently being assumed by many concerned persons. Advocates of this position seem to assume that good teaching is basically a matter of determination and discipline. According to Frazier (1977) such individuals believe:

1. Teachers will teach better when they themselves are better taught. Competency is the key, performance the proof. New teaching know-how can and will do the trick.
2. When we learn how to separate the can-do's from the no-can-do's among candidates for certification, we will get better teaching.
3. Let's do away with tenure. With the fear of dismissal always before them, teachers will buckle down to business. Get results or out you go (p. 138).

The rationale of those educators taking opposition to this point of view is that teacher preparation, certification standards, and supervision have never been better than they are at the present time. They argue that the need is to release rather than restrain teacher energy.

Parental and Community Involvement. Currently, community residents and parents are demanding an active voice in extremely sensitive areas of educational decision-making that within the past 70 years were solely delegated to boards of education and school administrators. If public schools are to regain the credibility once assigned to them by the public, then means of involvement and open communication with the schools' clientele must be established.

Educators must mount a new effort to demonstrate, with integrity, that the schools are indeed public. Progressive educators are already involved in designing ways to involve parents and community as partners in the school's functions. Advisory groups, decentralization, and employment of paraprofessionals are but a few of the current trends being utilized to establish open communication.

Summary

An anonymous sage once said, "The cause of anything is everything." This proposition embodies the notion of the interrelatedness of all things. Today the search goes on for the purposes of schooling. The purposes no doubt are varied and interrelated but the more fundamental are resultant of attempts to answer two basic questions put forth by MacDonald (1977): (1) what is the meaning of life? and (2) how can we work together?

It should come as no surprise that in a troubled society some would seek a national solution in "returning to basics." Let us recapitulate. There is a progressively widening split in the ranks of persons concerned with purposes of the school experience in the United States, a split that has resulted in definite trends in both theory and practice.

Although many educational issues are raised in the debate, they can be categorized under one of two broad headings, either (1) discipline, or (2) academic excellence. For many years our society has been concerned with how the young behave and what and how much they are learning in school.

Section II

Back to Basics—A Model for Dialogue

Being critical of the nation's schools has moved from a hobby stage to a full-blown national sport. Currently, demands are being made of schools from pressure groups involved in the so-called "Back to Basics" movement.

Deciding on the purposes of schooling results in complex questions for which there probably are no best answers. Nevertheless, these questions must not be set aside for the exclusive pondering of future scientists and philosophers, but rather are questions that honestly must be confronted in a serious manner by all those involved, in whatever remote fashion, in the growth experiences of young children.

Educational opinion, due to the uniqueness of individual perceptual filters, is contaminated with conventional wisdom; perspective without validity. Table 1 entitled, A Model for Curriculum Dialogue, is presented as such a device. We share this model

dialectically as we share the rest of the manuscript and its substance. The content of the model is presented for contemplation and discussion purposes only and is not intended to be final in nature. We feel obliged to remind the reader that classification schemes are used to assist individuals in organizing their own perceptions of reality and not to express any notions of "absolute" reality. However, collective perceptions expressed as beliefs ultimately result in defined philosophic positions. Put another way, probably no individual or institution exists in "pure form" as far as the identifying characteristics of a particular "camp." But, as educators constantly entertain pressure and criticism, it is useful for curriculum workers to have classification tools for categorizing various education opinions.

A Model for Curriculum Dialogue

Beliefs	Design A Movement Toward External Control	Design B	Design C Movement Toward Internal Control
	← Philosophy →		
Nature of man	Man is potentially evil.	Man is potentially both good and bad or a blank slate.	Man's potential is basically good.
Nature of Learning	Truth exists separate from the individual. There are basic facts that are necessary for all. Learning occurs by reaction.	Truth is relative and subject to the conditions of the learner and the environment. Learning occurs by action.	Truth is an individual matter. Learning occurs when the information encountered takes on personal meaning for the learner. Learning occurs by transaction and interaction.
Nature of Knowledge	Logical structure. Information. Subject matter. Vertical relationships. Universal.	Psychological structure. Vertical and horizontal relationships and interrelationships.	Perceptual structure. Relationships and interrelationships. Personal. Gestalt.
Nature of Society	Closed. Ordered. Institutionalized. Static, grouping.	Influx. Democratic. Relative values. Experimentation.	Open. Self renewing. Individual. Liberating. Distribution. Egalitarian.
Purpose of Education	To understand and apply knowledge. To control the environment. To learn absolute truth.	To learn prerequisite skills for survival. To learn conditional truths.	To live a full life. To experience the environment. To continue learning personal truth.
	Psychology		
Human Growth and Development	Growth is environmentally determined.	Growth is the realization of one's potential.	Growth is the celebration of one's potential.
Concept of Self	Determined by what others think. Focuses on personality deficiencies.	Determined by how the individual perceives the social environment (becoming-future orientation).	Determined and created by each individually (being-now orientation).
Human Emotions	Controlled. Closed. Unaware. Masked.	Circumstantial. Based on position. Well-adjusted.	Free. Openness. Spontaneity. Aware. Transparency. Experienced. Authentic.
Interpersonal Interactions	Role playing. Manipulative games. Defensive. Detached. Distrusting. Dependent.	Minimum risk. Selective. Objective. Exclusive. Encountering. Independent.	Sharing. Risking. Trusting. Nonpossessive. Mutual accessibility.
	Daily Practices		
Curriculum	Predetermined. Structured series. Logical sequence. Content centered. Outcomes established.	Sequenced experiences. Problem-centered. Future utility. Universalism.	Hidden. Unfolding. Created. Process centered. Unlimited. Emerging. Dynamic.

Instructional Behavior	Transmission of facts and content. Purposeful. Management. Teacher directed.	Grouping for instructional convenience. Inquiring. Discovering. Open questions with multiple answers. Teacher invitation.	Learner directed. Learner invitation. Teacher functions as source of safety and support.
Organization	Established. Emphasis on management. Focus on homogeneous grouping.	Orchestration. Focus on skill grouping.	Changing. Circumstantial. Adaptive. Focus on heterogeneous grouping.
Evaluation Techniques	Measurement of facts and content. Determined by authority. Imposed. Product oriented.	Critical thinking. Problem solving. Tests higher cognitive skills. Focuses on what is learned.	Feedback by invitation. Cooperative pupil and teacher evaluation. Nondamaging comparison. Multiple techniques. Focuses on how one feels about what is learned as well as what is learned.
		Definitions	
Definitions of Curriculum	A structured series of intended learning outcomes.	A sequence of potential experiences set up in school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in group ways of thinking and acting. —Smith, Stanley, Shores	An attempted definition of man translated into educational specifications.
Representative Language	Structure, management. Reinforcement. Shaping. Labeling. Performance. Accountability. Objectives. Behavior. Matching. Environment. Cause-effect. Measurement. Observation. Transmission of roles and functions. Control. Intelligence. Reality. Order. Standards. Tests. Grades. Cover. Direct.	Sequence. Stages. Growth and development. Becoming. Correlated. Interest. Programs. Diagnostic. Readiness. Technique. Skills. Activity. Individual differences. Rational. Well-adjusted. Motivation. Progress. Expectations. Understanding. Discipline. Knowledge. Evaluate. Enable. Support. Facilitate. Guide. Help. Meaningful.	Being. Desires. Process. Democratic. Freedom. Feedback. Fulfillment. Experience. Diversity. Perception. Potential. Harmony. Personal order. Self-direction. Accepting. Unique. Consequence. Potential. Awareness. Sharing. Trusting. Allow. Experiment. Involve. Issues. Options. Natural. Spontaneous. Personal meaning.

The Model is our attempt to identify and contrast philosophical-psychological profiles that tend to separate into three camps: (1) Design A, (2) Design B, and (3) Design C. This separation is quite possibly a direct reflection of whether educators are primarily concerned with doing *to*, *for*, or *with* children. The three camps can be dispersed on a continuum ranging from training to education.*

Training *(To)*	*(For)*	**Education** *(With)*
(Essentialism—Behaviorism)	(Experimentalism—Cognitive)	(Existentialism—Humanism)

According to MacDonald (1968), training is the process of preparing a person to perform defined functions in predictable situations, and education is the process of equipping an individual to perform undefined functions in unpredictable situations. An educational program committed to the training end of the continuum is based on the notion that children are the sum total of their experiences—passive victims of their environments. Conversely, the opposite end of the continuum is committed to the notion that children are active, goal-seeking organisms eager to profit from or celebrate encounters with their environments.

The basic beliefs applied to each of the three distinct educational camps are categorized into four parts: (1) philosophy, (2) psychology, (3) operations, and (4) definitions.

The remainder of this manuscript is an in-depth exploration of the philosophical/psychological base of each of the three camps, and the translation of each base into day-to-day practice in the school. Section III is devoted to Design A, Section IV is an analysis of Design B, and finally Section V is a treatment of Design C.

* For a more extensive discussion relative to this point the reader is referred to Chapter VI in Dobson and Dobson, *Humaneness in the Schools: A Neglected Force* (Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall/Hunt Publishers, 1976).

Section III

Design A

Curriculum development according to Design A is psychologically couched in Behaviorism and philosophically based in Essentialism. Behavioristic investigation is limited to objective, observable phenomena, and to the methods of natural science. Essentialism, a philosophical position, mediates between the Realist and Idealist extremes. Marshall (1973, p. 97) contends that Essentialists believe that ". . . some tradition must continue to be taught as the indisputable core of curriculum."

J. B. Watson, an American psychologist who leaned heavily upon the research of Pavlov, formulated Behaviorism around 1913. Watson proposed to make psychology scientific by utilizing only objective methods, including adaptations of Pavlov's conditioning techniques, investigations of human physiology, the study of animal behavior and laboratory experiments.

Watson, who was an animal psychologist at Johns Hopkins University, objected to the concept of introspection, which he considered unscientific. Watson believed psychology's real concern was to study behavior, not consciousness.

At this same period in history, Edward L. Thorndike was formulating his theory of learning called S-R bond or connectionism. Thorndike (1912) assumed that through conditioning, specific responses come to be linked with specific stimuli. Thorndike's laws (1912, 1913, 1949) leave no room for any sort of thought or insight and apparently do not require any kind of purposefulness of man nor of lower animals. It is Thorndike's name that is generally associated with the concept of trial and error (Biggs, 1964; Sargent and Stafford, 1965). Thorndike's works not only pervaded the development of the field of educational psychology but also were related in textbooks used by most teachers, counselors and school administrators. More specifically, Thorndike's research has had a tremendous impact upon current educational practices such as the popularization of standardized testing, accountability, and an emphasis upon teacher skills, strategies or techniques (Eisner, 1977).

The leading proponent of Behaviorism today is B. F. Skinner.* Skinner conducted the first systematic study of operant conditioning in 1938 and he and his associates have continually refined the process, referring to it as behavior shaping. According to Skinner, practically every detail of our behavior and our children's behavior is shaped by reward and punishment in one form or another. Programmed learning is a relatively recent application of Skinner's operant conditioning/behavior shaping (Goldenson, 1975).

Sulzer and Mayer (1972, p. 2) emphasize that due to the influence of B. F. Skinner, there has been an increased interest in ". . . basic behavioral laboratory research as well as applied research in settings such as schools. . ." Their book is written on the basic assumption that what students *do* is of primary importance. They continue that behavioral change is implicit in any school program and that ". . . the decision is not *whether* behavior should be changed, but *who* will change it, *what* the goals will be, and *which* specific program of behavior change will be used (p. 3)."

Therefore, the teacher, counselor or school administrator adhering to the tenets of Behaviorism becomes a behavioral engineer (Dimick & Huff, 1970). The behavioral engineer, through the scientific application of empirically validated principles, not only brings about behavior modification in children but also manipulates environmental conditions so that the child can function optimally as defined by some outside authority.

The philosophical counterpart of Behaviorism is Essentialism which in American education is comprised of Idealism and Realism. Idealism as a school of thought began with Plato, often considered the Father of Idealism (Marler, 1975). The thinking of philosophers Descartes and Spinoza added to this particular philosophy. During our country's colonial period, Calvinist Johnathan Edward and Samuel Johnson emphasized the discipline of the mind as the instrument of gaining knowledge. During this same period, Immanuel Kant and George Hegel, among others, contributed to this particular school of thought. The man generally thought of as the Father of Modern Idealism is Bishop Berkeley.

Aristotle is considered the Father of Realism. However, John Locke, Johann Herbert, Alfred North Whitehead, Bertrand Russell and George Santayana are some of the more notable contributors to this particular philosophic thought. The Realism movement provided much of the philosophical basis for the school testing movement and the development of educational psychology. The intelligence

* For a more detailed exposition of Skinner's position, see: Eugene Swain's "B. F. Skinner and Carl R. Rogers on Behavior and Education." *Curriculum Bulletin*, 28:1-45, August, 1974, No. 324. (Available: Curriculum Bulletin, Oceanside, OR 97134. $2.00.)

scales of Binet and Terman and the measurement of curricular and instructional variables pursued by Thorndike and his successors have their roots in Realism.

The melding of Idealism and Realism extremes seems to produce Essentialism. Kneller (1964) identified four fundamental principles which provide the basis for the Essentialism movement. These are:

1. Learning involves hard work and often unwilling application. Emphasis is placed on the importance of discipline. The child attains personal control only through voluntary submission to discipline, imposed by the teacher.
2. The initiative in education lies with the teacher rather than the pupil.
3. Assimilation of prescribed subject matter is emphasized.
4. The school is obligated to retain traditional methods of mental discipline. Creative achievements of the past are sources of knowledge for dealing with problems of the present.

Therefore, teachers, counselors or school administrators who align themselves with the Essentialist philosophy believe that the purpose of education is both intellectual and moral discipline. The school has the role in society of ". . . preserving and transmitting the essential core of the culture and incidentally to the ordered evolutionary process of change (Wingo, 1974, p. 62)." The teacher, of course, is the active agent of this transmitting process.

Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?

The Definition of Man. Given this brief discussion of the underlying psychology of Design A, Behaviorism, and the philosophical basis of Essentialism, the reader is encouraged to contemplate his/her degree of agreement with the following assumptions:

1. Man can be characterized clearly in terms of his behavior.
2. Man is a malleable and passive reactor to his environment which determines his behavior.
3. Man is not free.
4. Good and bad behavior are determined by authority.
5. Man's behavior is predictable.
6. Man's characteristics can be studied independently of one another.

If you are inclined to agree with these assumptions then you are probably philosophically aligned with advocates of Design A. These persons believe that man's potential tends toward evil. Therefore for the good of themselves and society children must be directed and controlled. These persons attempt to shape learners according to their values and teach them what they should know.

Motivation. Motivation is defined by Goldenson (1975, p. 536) as "the dynamics of behavior; the process of initiating, sustaining and directing the activities of the organism." Once again the reader is urged to contemplate his/her degree of agreement with the following:

1. Behaviors which are reinforced (rewarded) are likely to recur.
2. Frequency of repetition is necessary in acquiring skills and in bringing about overlearning to guarantee retention.
3. Reinforcement (reward) must follow immediately after the desired behavior and be clearly connected with that behavior in the mind of the learner.
4. Appropriate external stimulation of the learner is necessary for optimal achievement.

If you are in agreement with the above assumptions then you are likely to be in accord with those who believe appropriate external stimulation in the form of rewards or punishment is necessary for optimal achievement. Motivation is interpreted as the process of initiating, sustaining and directing the activities of the organism.

Learning Conditions. Now, focus upon learning conditions, or your personal beliefs concerning essentials or requirements necessary for learning to take place. Consider your agreement with the following list of assumptions:

1. Man's mind is an information receptacle which can produce factual content mastery.
2. Mastery of content is assisted by organization; therefore content presented to the learner should be ordered and systematic.
3. The mind consists of separate, but related faculties which can be trained.
4. Learning is largely a reactive experience.
5. Learning situations should be created to induce competition for rewards among learners.

People agreeing with these assumptions tend to see the mind as a giant psychological storehouse

capable of receiving and holding a multitude of facts, concepts, and skills. When the occasion calls for one or more of these particles of learning to be recalled, the mind delivers it to the stage of action. The development of various skills through drill, practice, habit formation, and conditioning are all appropriate methods.

Social Learning. Social learning can be defined as the gradual acquisition of attitudes and behavior that enable the individual to function as a member of society. Inherent in this definition is the development of behavior patterns which are acceptable to society. Below is a list of assumptions which the reader may wish to ponder as he/she attempts to delineate or to revisit beliefs concerning social learning.

1. Children do not know what is best for them and must be motivated to learn what is significant and contributory to their lives.
2. Adults, because of chronological age, know better than children what they should be when they grow up.
3. The purpose of school is to prepare children for adulthood so they can assume a contributing role in society.
4. Personality is a social product.

Those who suscribe to these assumptions emphasize the development of behavior patterns which are acceptable to society. Social learning is seen as the gradual acquisition of attitudes and behavior that enable the individual to function as a member of society. Appropriate external stimulation, usually in the form of rewards, is necessary for optimal achievement.

Intellectual Development. Psychologists agree that intelligence is not a single entity, but a complex, multifaceted set of abilities. Psychologists, however, disagree concerning whether or how much of intelligence is based upon innate capacity and how much is determined by environmental conditions.

Take a few moments to think about the following assumptions:

1. People possess different levels and amounts of intelligence. These can be ascertained and reported by a score derived from testing.
2. The normal curve expresses the social and academic expectation of where people are supposed to fit for the goodness of all.

If you tend to agree with these assumptions then you probably see intelligence as primarily a function of environmental conditions. In addition, you probably believe that persons possess different levels and amounts of intelligence.

Knowledge. Knowledge is certainly a prerequisite to enlightened citizenry. However, many school personnel have not clearly formulated in their own minds exactly what constitutes knowledge. Once again, take a risk and check yourself concerning your own beliefs about the following assumptions:

1. Knowing is a process of reacting to stimulation.
2. Truth exists prior to the learning of it.
3. Truth can be known for itself and not merely for some instrumental purpose.

If you accept these assumptions then you probably agree with those who submit that a central body of knowledge exists that must be transmitted to all. The truth is pre-existent to the learning of it.

Society. The final list of assumptions in this section is presented below and deals with the concept of society:

1. The school preserves social order and builds new social orders when the public has decided they are needed.
2. Mankind is made man by cultural birth.

According to persons suscribing to Design A, school is one of the most important institutions in society whose purpose is preservation of the culture. The school is the tool for maintaining existing social order and helping to build new social order when the authorities have decided on them. The task of the school is one of developing a standardized citizen as a product. Did you generally agree or disagree with the assumptions stated in this section?

We are not suggesting that beliefs can be neatly assigned in pure form to this or that camp, but that beliefs have a tendency to lean in certain directions. As you respond to the assumptions in sections IV and V your philosophical profile should begin to be revealed. If no philosophical direction is revealed, we recommend extensive study and introspection on your part. You make daily decisions that affect the lives of boys and girls; these decisions require a crystal clear theoretical/philosophical base. The remainder of this section attempts to translate the philosophical/psychological assumptions into daily classroom operations according to: (1) instruction, (2) curriculum, (3) organization, (4) resources, (5) physical space, and (6) evaluation.

Educational Practices

Instruction. Teachers who adhere to Design A believe that man's potential tends toward evil. Therefore, children must be directed and controlled. This negative belief of man is often cloaked in expressions of restrained warmth as youngsters are manipulated toward predetermined goals. Therefore, the teacher masks, plays a role, or sets up games in order to maintain the status quo.

Since things are valued over people, rules and maintaining the status quo of the school take priority over children's needs, wants, and desires. Student production is valued and the child who does not produce that which is required at a predetermined level of competency is not a "good" student or is at best disabled.

The basic beliefs concerning human growth and development are centered upon humans as reactors to their environments. Therefore, children are the sum total of their experiences, or robots, to use Ford and Urban's (1963) term.

The goal of instruction is the completion and mastery of predetermined common learnings by all students. Individualized instruction is viewed as an ideal strategy for pupil progress, and students are directed through a common program at their own rate. The use of feedback and other reinforcement devices are emphasized.

Diagnosis and ongoing assessment are recommended to insure proper placement of learners. For those learners who are "behind" or who are not progressing according to expectation, the tutoring relationship is seen as valuable. In addition, small group target teaching and remedial endeavors are employed by the teacher.

In summary, the instructional behavior of the Design A teacher is identifiable according to the following points:

1. Transmission of verifiable facts which constitute universal skills is necessary.
2. Management of children is necessary to ensure proper growth.
3. The teacher should portray a role that reflects a preconceived model of teacher.
4. Children should portray a role that reflects a preconceived model of student.
5. Diagnostic and prescriptive teaching are absolute necessities.
6. Students are allowed to progress through the common curriculum at a rate compatible with their ability range.
7. The common program is divided into carefully sequenced lessons.
8. Ongoing assessment, immediate feedback, and various reinforcement devices are used to insure that students remain task-oriented.
9. The ends of instructional activities are usually exemplified in highly explicit behavioral terms.
10. Remediation through tutorial and other arrangements is seen as mandatory.
11. Instructional attempts are made to accentuate commonalities and minimize differences.

Curriculum. To the Design A teacher, the curriculum is highly structured and content centered; consequently, it is predetermined and logical. For example, fourth grade content must be mastered before a child can be successful with fifth grade content. Activities or lessons are carefully worked out in basic skills and content areas, and sequences of work are carefully planned.

In the final analysis, the curriculum is that part of the school's program that nurtures intellectual discipline. It consists of a common core of subject matter, intellectual skills, and accepted values that are so essential they must be transmitted to all who come to school.

In summary, the curriculum according to Design A could be exemplified in the following manner:

1. The curriculum is a general education curriculum.
2. The curriculum must place top priority on skills and knowledges necessary for all people to meet the basic demands of life.
3. There should be a direct relationship between the curriculum and the objectives of the school and the larger society.
4. Day-by-day lesson plan objectives must be well defined and specific.
5. Sequence in curriculum content must indicate that there is a logical structural sequence to knowledge.
6. The curriculum sequence and scope is best divided into segmented, isolated, and compartmentalized packages of knowledge specified by grade levels and with predetermined standards applying equally to all children.

7. Elements of the curriculum are derived from the substance of knowledge itself.

8. The curriculum should be considered a totally predetermined body of content with highly defined and restricted delimitations.

Organization. The organizational structure for Design A is founded in three assumptions: (1) schools are designed to inculcate a specific body of subject matter; (2) this subject matter should be identified and rigorously prescribed, and (3) individual differences merely determine one's chances to cover the predetermined content. The pattern of vertical school structure is laid out in grades, each grade specifying the content to be taught. The pattern of horizontal school structure leans toward departmentalization and homogeneous grouping based on subject-matter achievement. Nonpromotion is the primary mechanism by which children who progress slowly are adjusted to the system (NESP, 1961).

The graded form and/or levels approach of school organization was created to serve (1) the educational function of classifying content, and (2) the administrative function of classifying pupils for upward progression through the school. Organization for Design A necessitates determining content for graded tests, questions for graded achievement tests, and grade level expectations. These grade level expectations have become a part of our culture.

In summary, decisions concerning school organization which are congruent with Design A are reflected below:

1. Schools are committed to predetermined standards. The organization of the school reflects a system whereby each child must measure up to a given level of performance. If the child does not, he/she receives a low grade or is retained in a grade or level for an additional period of time.

2. The horizontal organization of the school permits students to be assigned to instructional groups of like ability within subject matter areas. This usually results in a departmentalized arrangement.

3. Individual differences are usually viewed as existing between and among learners as opposed to differences existing within individual students.

4. Individual differences are reflected in the rate of time required for a student to work through the prescribed curriculum. This results in individual pacing in progress through designated study sequences.

5. The teaching function becomes one of diagnosing, prescribing, treating, analyzing results and writing the next prescription. Much attention is paid to learning management systems. There is an emphasis on a high level of accountability for getting desired results.

6. Paraprofessionals are often employed to handle routine tasks.

7. Special teaching personnel are also employed to either assume responsibility for or to assist in diagnosing and providing remedial services.

8. Space arrangement is a direct result of the instructional plan. Provisions are made to allow smaller spaces for discussion groups. There also is a push for specialized facilities such as laboratories and workshops. Provisions for individual study carrels and stations are seen as desirable.

Resources. Each piece of equipment and individual supplies can be justified only to the extent of their overall attainment of previously determined purposes of the school. Resources reflecting Design A are:

1. Materials that correlate with a diagnostic approach and that can be easily prescribed such as programmed materials, teaching machines, subject matter programs, learning packets, and kits are seen as desirable.

2. There is an emphasis on appropriate diagnostic devices.

3. Since the prescribed curriculum is the same for all, there is a tendency toward a single textbook approach, *i.e.* basal reading series.

4. Assignments or prescriptions are highly explicit in terms of study materials to be covered.

General Physical Description. The Design A school is probably somewhat quieter than the so-called more progressive school. The movement of children is scheduled upon the need of the lesson to be covered. Children generally sit at individual desks. Formality is the key to utilization of physical space.

Persons in this environment are expected to assume appropriate roles (Student, teacher, principal, aide, parent) and are expected to exhibit behavior complimentary to the designated role function. The strategy for establishing this type environ-

ment results in designing techniques and establishing management goals for the purpose of controlling the individual and maintaining social order. Essentially the plan is for individuals to perform defined functions in predictable situations. Children are expected to respect constituted authority.

In summary:

1. Persons, big and little, are expected to display behavior appropriate to their assigned role.
2. The emphasis is on order, control and management of individuals and of the physical environment.
3. The arrangement and material characteristics of the physical environment reflect a definite plan for learning management.
4. Generally, students are expected to be quiet and orderly and to buckle down to work with a minimum of nonsense.

Evaluation. The process of evaluation is viewed by Design A advocates as a necessary part of the teaching-learning situation. Evaluation is necessary in order that a determination of the child's level of performance is ascertained so that reasonable decisions can be made about his/her future educational activities. This system is extremely product oriented. The measurement of facts and content is imperative in the evaluation of student learning. The system determines the evaluation methods, and the teacher imposes these procedures upon children. Nonpromotion is the primary mechanism by which children who progress slowly are adjusted to the system.

Evaluation as practiced by proponents of Design A may be summarized as follows:

1. Academic standards serve the purpose of excluding and including persons in the formal school program.
2. The standard form is the evaluation scheme whereby each child must measure up to a given level of performance.
3. Predetermined standards apply indiscriminately to all children in a grade or school.
4. National norms are applied to all communities within a state.
5. Predetermined standards tend to solidify curriculum structure and learning experiences.
6. A child is placed in a given learning environment that he/she is best suited for, based on someone's assessment of his/her maturity, abilities, attainment, and overall general nature.
7. Children are ranked in terms of the success of other children.
8. Knowledge of facts should and must be measured.

Summary

This chapter presented a brief discussion of both the psychological and philosophical base of Design A. Assumptions concerning beliefs relative to the definition of man, motivation, learning conditions, social learning, intellectual development, knowledge and society from this particular point of view were listed for contemplation by the reader. A discussion of instructional behavior, curriculum, organizational design, resources, general physical descriptions and evaluation procedures congruent with the beliefs of Design A followed.

Section IV

Design B

Education by Design B is based in Cognitive-field psychology and in Pragmatism and Experimentalism schools of educational philosophy. Pragmatism as a formal school philosophy is a modern movement which originated in the intellectually and socially turbulent years at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries (Marler, 1975).

Cognitive-field theory or psychology is based upon the thinking of Kurt Lewin. The psychology represents a relativistic, as opposed to an absolutistic mechanistic manner of viewing man and the learning process. Relativism means that psychological reality is defined in subjective, perceptual terms and not in objective, physical terms. From this definition then, a person's ". . . reality consists of what one makes of that which one gains through one's senses or otherwise" (Biggs, 1964, p. 176).

The heart of Lewin's psychological pursuits centered in the motivating conditions of person-environment situations. He was interested in democratic ideals and practices.

Jerome Bruner (1960) is also considered a Cognitive-field psychologist. He conceptualized the "spiral curriculum" which emphasizes that children can learn at their own level any subject matter at any age and that educators can settle for incomplete, intuitive understanding at intermediate stages of learning. Bruner believes that full knowledge and understanding come with repeated attacks, at increasingly mature levels, on the same topics. The concept of categorizing behavior has been studied by Bruner. Bruner (1957) introduced the term "coding system" to describe the way that the organism learns to code situations which are encountered and how this may lead to appropriate behavior in relation to them. Therefore, all problem-solving behavior implies that the problem has been in some way coded. Bruner proposes that those coding systems should be taught which permit the greatest application to the solving of new problems.

Cognitive development, according to Piaget (1967), is the intellectual counterpart of biological adaptation to the environment. Wadsworth (1971) explains that as an individual adapts biologically to his environment he also adapts intellectually and that an individual organizes and gives structure to his external world through assimilation and accommodation. Adaptation begins at birth with the exercise of sensory-motor reflexes, but as the child develops, the adaptations he/she makes are increasingly less related to sensory and motor behaviors alone. Piaget (1967) stressed that knowledge is not transmitted directly but is constructed.

Therefore, the teacher, counselor or school administrator adhering to the tenets of Cognitive-field psychology places great emphasis upon the individual and his interactions with his environment. Providing sequential, growth-producing experiences for all students is of great import in the school based in Design B. Democratic values are stressed in order that students will become productive citizens as adults.

Pragmatism basically represents an American philosophical development although parallel ideas were presented by England's Schiller and Balfour and Germany's Vaihinger. The forerunner of pragmatic thought can be found in Heraclitus, a Greek philosopher who emphasized the constancy of change; in the Sophists, who denied the possibility of knowing ultimate reality; and in Quintilian, the Roman who emphasized action rather than deductive reasoning as a pathway to learning.

In America, the focus of Pragmatism was the harmonizing of the individual and society. The work of William James caught the attention of John Dewey, who is thought of as the Father of Experimentalism, a branch of Pragmatism. Dewey professed that the process of education provided the proper testing ground for philosophical theory. His works emphasized the individual and stressed activity for activity's sake, rather than for evaluation.

Some of the basic tenets (Dawson, 1976) associated with this particular philosophy of education are:

1. The importance of individual differences and interests of children.
2. Providing alternatives so that the child has the opportunity to experience freedom of choice and the concomitant responsibility.
3. The stressing of the scientific method of thought and learning.
4. Knowledge is considered to be based in experience.
5. Truth is relative; the ultimate questions of life cannot be answered as absolutes of fixed truths.
6. Children's psychological needs are paramount over the logical order of subject matter.
7. Values are instrumental.

Therefore, the teacher, counselor or school administrator adhering to the tenets of Pragmatism/Experimentalism provides an activity-centered curriculum in which choice is inherent and problem-solving is prized. Emphasis is placed on the child and his/her needs. When needs are met, growth continues and therefore the child progresses toward the realization of potential. Education must serve as a source of new ideas for enriching society.

Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?

The Definition of Man. Advocates of Design B tend to view man according to the basic tenets of Cognitive-field psychology and the philosophical beliefs expressed in Pragmatism/Experimentalism. The reader is encouraged to take a personal stand on the following assumptions which are relative to a definition of man:

1. Man's behavior is based on cognition, the act of knowing or thinking about a situation and not on the situation itself.
2. Personal cognitive structure is determined by experience with the environment and the maturation of innate potential.
3. Man is best described in relative terms.

4. Human variability is seen as desirable in a democratic society which respects the dignity and worth of each individual.
5. Man is endowed with a creative urge for improvement.
6. Man is an active, goal-seeking organism.
7. Man is a social being.
8. Freedom for an individual means growth and the willingness to change when modifications are needed.

If you were in agreement with the above assumptions then you probably lean toward a neutral belief of man. Teachers subscribing to these assumptions deal with children where they are currently functioning, and manipulate the environment so that the best possible experiences occur, based upon teacher's perception of what is best. The total person is one who is in harmony with the external environment.

Motivation. Motivation plays a central role in the learning process. Do you agree or disagree with the following assumptions concerning motivation?

1. Learning occurs best when the purposes and needs are realistic, meaningful and useful to the learner.
2. Productive learning experiences require active involvement.
3. Productive learning takes place when the tasks are adjusted to the maturity and experiential background of the learner.
4. Cognitive processes are set into motion (thinking) when the learner encounters an obstacle, difficulty, puzzle or challenge in a course of action which interests him/her.
5. When an individual's psychological and emotional needs are met, learning and retention will be enhanced.

If you were in agreement with the above assumptions, then you probably see the teaching function as a blend of the teacher as a manipulator and the intellectual structures that characterize what is to be taught.

Learning Conditions. What do you believe concerning the conditions best suited for learning? Take a moment to contemplate the following assumptions:

1. Expectations of learners should be based upon knowledge of their abilities which are determined by physiological and social development.
2. Learning that takes place in lifelike or functional situations will enhance retention, transfer and usability.
3. Experiencing too much frustration causes children's behavior to be less integrated, purposeful and rational.
4. When the learner sees results, has knowledge of his/her status and progress and/or achieves insight, understanding and personal meaning, then the learning process proceeds in the best manner.
5. The educative process begins with the learner identifying his/her own concerns and interests.
6. Self confidence is related to one's capacity for learning and for making important choices affecting one's learning.

Those who subscribe to these assumptions focus on a combination of self confidence, physiological, social, and intellectual development in determining learner expectations. They are also concerned with whether or not learning tasks are lifelike and/or functional.

Social Learning. Below is a list of assumptions which the reader may wish to consider as he attempts to delineate beliefs concerning social learning—the acquisition of attitudes and behaviors that enable an individual to function as a member of society:

1. Pupils learn much from one another.
2. Children receive satisfaction from work, have pride in achievement, enjoy the process, and gain a sense of worthiness and stimulation for motivation from reasonable new challenges.
3. Satisfaction in learning is affected by the group atmosphere as well as the products.
4. Every human cultural system is logical and coherent in its own terms.
5. Man has the capacity to adopt, adapt and reconstitute present and past ideas and beliefs. Man also has the capacity to invent.

Those who subscribe to these assumptions emphasize how the individual functions relative to group norms. They see satisfaction in learning affected by the group atmosphere as well as by products.

Intellectual Development. What do you believe concerning the development of the intellect? Take

a few moments to reflect on the following assumptions:

1. Increase in intelligence tests scores is positively related to aggressiveness, competitiveness, initiative, and strength of felt need to achieve.
2. Tests cannot adequately measure innate capacity.
3. The most rapid mental growth occurs during infancy and early childhood; the average child achieves approximately half of his/her total mental growth by the age of five.
4. Ability to learn increases with age up to adult years.
5. Readiness for learning is a complex interplay of social, physiological, emotional and intellectual development.
6. Differences in intelligence are learned cultural patterns rather than biologically inherited characteristics.
7. Children learn and develop intellectually not only at their own rate but in their own style.

If you tend to agree with these assumptions then you probably agree with those who submit that readiness for learning is a complex interplay of social, physiological, emotional, and intellectual development. The focus is on learning style as well as learning rate.

Knowledge. How would you define knowledge? Are knowing and knowledge one and the same? Take a few moments to ponder the assumptions listed below:

1. Knowledge is temporary and conditional.
2. Knowledge is rooted in experience. Experience may be either immediate or meditated.
3. Man creates knowledge as he interacts with the toal environment'
4. Information becomes knowledge when it is thought to be relevant to the solution of a particular problem.
5. Workability is the test of truth.

Those adhering to these assumptions assert that knowledge is rooted in experience, and therefore is tentative. As children grow, develop, and change, knowledge of what is true also changes. Information becomes knowledge when it is considered relevant to the solution of a particular problem.

Society. The final set of assumptions for this section is relative to the concept of society. How would you define society? What influence does society have on the growth and development of individuals?

1. Society is a process in which individuals participate.
2. Education is a social program that is constantly undergoing reconstruction.
3. The school is one of society's resources for social experimentation.
4. Society is self renewing.
5. Society gives order and direction to man's behavior.
6. Society gives identity to individuals in a group.

Those agreeing with these assumptions see society as a process in which individuals participate. The major role of the school is to teach the adults of the future to deal with the planning necessary in the process called society. Education must serve as a source of new ideas.

Again, to suggest that any one individual's beliefs relative to a philosophy of education exist in an either/or situation or pure form is not our intent. However, we again emphasize that all possess beliefs that cause us to lean toward certain philosophic postures. If your reactions to the sets of assumptions did not reveal a tendency toward an identifiable profile for you, we strongly suggest further study on your part.

In any event, in order for philosophical/theoretical propositions to provide any degree of utility they ultimately must be translated into educational practices. The following segment of this section reflects this effort. Educational practices reflecting Design B have been established for the following variables: (1) Instruction, (2) Curriculum, (3) Organization, (4) Content, (5) Materials and Resources, (6) Classification of Learners, (7) General Physical Description, and (8) Evaluation.

Educational Practices

Instruction. "Not the age but the stage" is a cliche that has come to be associated with Developmental Design. As Goodlad (1965) points out:

> Children are different, much more different than we have up to now recognized. . . . The usual fourth-grade class contains children achieving at second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth grades in some aspects of their schoolwork—and even occasionally above and below these levels (p. 57).

Teachers in Design B are primarily concerned with determining the current educational status of the individual and providing the necessary course to be followed for him/her to successfully progress through the curriculum, Diagnosis and prescription on an individual basis are seen as ideal. However, current diagnostic procedures largely ignore emotional, social, and physical development as well as academic development. The role of the teacher becomes one of a learning manager and consultant whose primary task is to orchestrate the learning environment.

Although curriculum units are not necessarily prescribed, the teacher has a plan or an idea for the week or for the day, with specific areas that are to be covered. In addition, there is a general plan to be completed in the classroom during the day. This planning is in terms of individuals as well as the class as a whole. If children lose interest, the teacher redirects their attention in attempting to arouse their curiosity in a parallel activity. The teacher keeps individual progress records on children, so that proper placement in relation to their rates of development can be made in each area of the curriculum.

Purdom (1970) points out that the teacher model according to Design B is not necessarily restricted to human instruction. Currently, programmed texts and teaching machines have assumed some of the teacher functions. Teacher performance is a result of applying appropriate techniques.

Instruction as practiced by teachers advocating Design B may be summarized as follows:

1. The teacher functions as a resource person to individuals and groups rather than as a taskmaster.
2. Subgrouping for instructional purposes is recommended.
3. Learning activities are appropriately phased. The teacher decides when it is time to summarize or to pull loose ends together before moving on to another aspect of that which is to be learned.
4. The study period is well-organized with children knowing what is expected of them.
5. Educational listening, viewing, and reading opportunities present themselves in a vast array of radio and television programs, films, filmstrips, pictures, books, and magazines.
6. Learning activities are provided on the basis of individual needs.
7. Children are assisted in progressing through the curriculum sequence at their own rate of development.

Curriculum. Design B proponents support the idea that learning experiences should be developed differently for each child, or for a group, or for the whole class. Academic skills in reading, writing, and math are integrated. Learning to read usually follows a language experience approach. However, some teachers introduce phonics to help break down new words. Mathematics is taught by concrete objects—things to count, weigh, measure, and through real activities in everyday living.

Though focus lies primarily with conceptual learning, time is still spent teaching skills. When experiences are created for the student by the teacher, the need for learning skills becomes apparent to the child.

The curriculum is designed around the key concepts, values, and skills of the various disciplines. Broad structural concepts provide continuity of learning.

The curriculum in a Design B school focuses on four attributes: (1) balance, (2) content selection, (3) spiral, and (4) structure. Balance in curriculum is maintained for the learner through attempting to diminish those deficiencies being experienced by the child. To determine balance in the curriculum, it becomes necessary to distinguish between content and subject matter that can be designated as cultural imperatives and cultural electives.

The spiral curriculum is supported by the premise that children need to reinforce and supplement their behaviors before moving on to the next level of learning. This approach affords the learner time to associate meaning with newly acquired information.

In order to predict, direct, diagnose, and assess the cognitive growth of individual children the concept of structure must be applied to the curriculum. This facilitates the function of student placement in the curriculum experience.

Curriculum by Design B may be summarized as follows:

1. Top priority is placed on skills and knowledge necessary for all people to meet the basic demands of life.
2. Content earns its place in the curriculum by its contribution to the achievement of educational objectives.

3. The curriculum sequence in certain subject matter areas is based on a spiral structure which permits the learner to conceptualize by moving from limited perceptivity to universal perceptivity.

4. The scope of the curriculum is broad enough to include a wide variety of unifying and pupil-specialty learning experiences.

5. Though the curriculum has some degree of systematic structure, it is flexible enough to capitalize on emergent learning situations.

6. Provisions are made for the interdisciplinary nature of education.

7. In order to maintain balance in the curriculum, subject matter priorities are determined on the basis of societal and personal needs.

8. There is a system of articulation among units within a school, among schools, within school systems, and among states.

Organization. Design B advocates give priority to an organizational scheme which provides for differentiated rates and means of progression or growth. The vertical organization of the school should provide for continuous, fluid upward progression of all learners. The horizontal organization permits flexibility in placing pupils in instructional groups that vary in size from one to multiple numbers of pupils. Since it is accepted that children grow, develop, and learn at different rates, the notions of retention, retardation, or failure are virtually nonexistent.

Differentiated staffing or at least some form of team teaching is seen as desirable in Design B. It is more convenient to offer instructional assistance to students because arrangements can be made to free individuals in the team to work with groups ranging from one child to multiple numbers.

Therefore, the organization of the school based in Design B is summarized as follows:

1. The vertical organization of the school will provide for continuous unbroken, upward progression of all learners, with due recognition of the wide variability among learners in every aspect of their development.

2. The assignment of pupils to classroom groups is based on information about students and teachers and on an understanding of the goals to be achieved.

3. The horizontal organization of the school permits flexibility in assigning pupils to instructional groups that may range in size from one pupil to as many as 100 or more.

4. The organizational system permits coordination and planning by groups of teachers responsible for clusters of children in both large and small groups.

5. Internal coordination and planning results in the utilization of special talents and skills which a particular teacher or group of teachers may possess.

6. The contributions of specialized personnel are used as students progress through the elementary school, but their work is coordinated with and related to the total program.

7. A teaching team, regardless of structure or composition, represents the basic competencies necessary for effective and efficient teaching.

Content. Content priorities have been established for education in America for as long as schools have existed. At the present time schools are criticized if a child does not have a supply of traditional knowledge, if he is a poor or inadequate citizen, if he lacks family living skills, if he lacks skills or knowledge to become employed or if his values are different from the previous generation.

Even though the elementary school represents only one phase of our educational system, the elementary school has assumed these burdens and has attempted in varying degrees to meet these challenges. What tasks have the Design B advocates identified? These can be summarized as follows: (1) acquisition of certain cognitive skills through subjects such as English, mathematics, and science, (2) acquisition of social skills and appropriate behavioral patterns, (3) acquisitions of personal human relations skills in order to deal with basic human interactions, (4) acquisition of necessary vocational skills, and (5) acquisition of a value system which is acceptable to the larger society. Design B schools see general education as desirable at the elementary school level. In summary:

1. Content contributes to the achievement of educational objectives or the mission of the school.

2. Sequence in content reflects a logical structural sequence to knowledge and to development.

3. There should be a balance between the content-centered curriculum and the process curriculum.

Materials and Resources. Since Design B is anchored in human variability theory, advocates emphasize the provision of a wide range of materials and resources. There are few textbooks, as such, in sets; instead, there are some trade and reference works and audio visual aids. People in the community are seen as potential resources.

Very often centralized resource centers are established, based on the rationale that such an area reduces the need for duplication of resources and that a wider range of materials is available and that greater access to these materials is possible.

Classification of Learners or Grouping. Teachers in Design B schools are primarily concerned with determining the current academic status of the child and mapping out the necessary course of educational experiences to insure that he/she experiences successful progress. Achievement grouping is the most popular means through which this is accomplished.

The content is usually sequenced into a series of instructional levels, each level building on the other. Children are then assigned to instructional groups which best meet the needs of their particular achievement level in each of the content areas. This type of grouping is especially prevalent in the areas of math and reading. Such pupil classification provides children with the opportunity of progressing through the sequenced content at their own rates. Organizational schemes that use this method of classifying pupils are nongraded, individually prescribed instruction and individually guided education.

Children are grouped and regrouped on the basis of objectives, achievement and whatever criteria best fit a particular learning situation. For example, overlapping the reading level from group to group permits greater flexibility. If a child is a rapid learner, he/she can periodically move into new groups which are more advanced. If children learn slowly, they may stay with the same group for an extended period of time, thus receiving the attention they need.

In summary:

1. Each learner is assigned to instructional groups that are commensurate with his/her needs, interests, and achievement level.
2. In order for the learner to progress at his/her own rate the teacher organizes a step-by-step approach by providing prestructured materials and problems based on clearly delineated objectives.
3. Flexible grouping encourages teachers to provide for variations in individual differences.
4. Grade assignments are removed or minimized.
5. Each child progresses according to his/her own developmental pattern.
6. There is no need for retention, retardation, or failure.
7. Goals are set individually so that a child may learn as rapidly as he/she is able, within the pattern which best suits his/her own particular rate of development.
8. Children are free from time to time to engage in special interest projects either in the classroom or in a resource center where specialists are available to work directly with each student.
9. Self-instructional work areas are provided.
10. Each cluster of children includes multiple age groups.
11. It is important for at least one person in the school to know and understand each child well.
12. A teaching team better represents the basic competencies necessary for effective and efficient teaching than can a single teacher in a self-contained unit.

Time and Space. Design B teachers see value in a basic time schedule since effective learning cannot take place in a school that is random in nature. For learning to proceed with order and harmony, some scheduling of activities is necessary.

The use of bells is minimized; however, there are fixed time divisions to insure order. The traffic of individual children shifting and regrouping is not seen as a problem. Therefore, time and space utilization in Design B is a function of planned learning activities resulting in flexible time schedules.

General Physical Description. Generally, there are no individual desks and children do not have assigned places. Rooms are equipped with tables for ease in providing various kinds of activities. Alcoves often are created with book cases and other moveable furniture. These secluded areas are called corners, learning corners, learning stations and so on. There is usually a math center, a reading center, an art center, as well as centers for other kinds of activities. If the teacher has a desk it is generally placed in an out of the way part of the room.

The teacher usually works with one group of children at a time while other groups are occupied in independent work. There is little teaching, as such, to the whole group.

In summary, the general physical description of the school based on Design B may be summarized as follows:

1. The overall environment reflects a busy and industrious atmosphere with students working at relevant tasks that provide them with success.
2. The teacher guides by moving from group to group to either serve as resource person or to keep children task oriented.

Evaluation. Design B reflects a belief that any evaluation system in which pupils are ranked in terms of the success of other children will create more unwholesome competition than will a system in which success of others is not necessarily related to one's own. Advocates of Design B emphasize that the uniform standards approach fails to consider individual differences of children. Such an approach rewards and punishes a child on the basis of his/her capacity and develops in many feelings of inadequacy, frustration, and a negative attitude not only toward school, but toward life.

Design B evaluation programs have three dimensions: (1) quantitative measurements, (2) the teacher's judgment, and (3) the child's feelings. The third dimension considers children's attitudes and feelings toward themselves and their academic work. Proponents of Design B believe that the best approach to assessing growth is to consider the child's actual performance. In reporting and evaluating, the teacher describes what the child is doing. Such basic, analytical description is more meaningful than any grade symbol. Since the school's goal is to develop the total child, evaluation reflects that effort. The ability of the child to comprehend and recall facts is valuable, but only as it provides a point of reference from which higher levels of cognition may proceed.

Evaluation, according to Design B, must be quantitative, qualitative, and predictive to be of real value. Such criteria can be met only through subjective and objective evaluation by the teacher plus the child's own reflective evaluation. Evaluation must determine: (1) if enough preliminary knowledge is available for the child to proceed; (2) if the child is able to grow effectively and to produce in the environment; (3) if the child has the opportunity for higher order learning; and (4) the most important, if the child's concept of self gives any indication that the first three criteria are being met.

Therefore, evaluation based in Design B emphasizes that the best theoretical approach to assessing growth is to consider the child's actual performance. This basic and analytical description is more meaningful than any grade, regardless of the symbols used.

Summary

This section presented the basic beliefs and the concomitant educational practices inherent in Design B; an approach to education founded in Cognitive-field psychology and in the philosophy of Pragmatism/Experimentalism. The reader was asked to compare his/her beliefs and practices with those of Design B advocates.

Section V

Design C

Education by Design C has its roots in Humanistic psychology and Existential philosophy. Humanistic psychology focuses on "man himself—his needs, his goals, his achievements, his success. . . " (Goble, 1970, p. xii). The human potential movement is often referred to as the Third Force and has become a voice in education that is beginning to be heard over the cries of the technologist, portrayed in Design A, and those of the Experimentalist, depicted in Design B.

Abraham Maslow, Rollo May, Fredrick Perls and Carl Rogers* are probably among the most notable

* For a more detailed exposition of Rogers' position, see: Eugene Swain's "B. F. Skinner and Carl R. Rogers on Behavior and Education." *Curriculum Bulletin*, 28:1-45, August, 1974, No. 324. (Available: Curriculum Bulletin, Oceanside, OR 97134. $2.00.)

psychologists associated with Humanistic psychology. According to these persons, the single basic motivation of all human beings is the actualization of one's potentials (Patterson, 1973). An individual's specific needs are organized (Maslow, 1970) and assume temporary priority relative to this basic need for self-actualization. A specific need which is temporarily most important receives attention or becomes the figure against the ground of other needs, to use Gestalt terminology.

Therefore, the concept of threat becomes very important in the learning process. Humanistic psychologists believe that threat leads to resistance to change; that threat will not lead to self-enhancing behavior, but to self-preserving behavior. According to Combs and Snygg (1959) learning or positive behavior does not occur under threat, and therefore it becomes increasingly important to consider those conditions which minimize threat and which lead to positive behavior change.

Rogers (1957, 1961) has delineated conditions or aspects of personal relationships which minimize threat or the need to protect oneself and which therefore, maximize self-enhancing behaviors. Three of the basic conditions are: (1) emphathic understanding, (2) respect or nonpossessive warmth and (3) genuineness. A brief description may clarify for the reader the meaning of these conditions. Empathy, according to Rogers (1961, p. 284), is ". . . to sense the (other's) private world as if it were your own, but without losing the 'as if' quality . . ." The Cherokee Indians generally are credited with a prayer that expresses the concept of empathy. The last phrase of the poem is: ". . . have walked the trail of life in his moccasins." Empathy, therefore, is the ability and the sensitiveness to perceive and feel from another's point of view.

Nonpossessive warmth or respect is a second condition necessary for minimizing threat and maximizing self-enhancing behaviors. Inherent in this concept is an acceptance of the other as a person of worth, without judgment or condemnation.

Genuineness connotes openness, honesty and sincerity. Rogers (1957) states that a genuine person is freely and deeply himself and that therefore, he is without a facade. Many Existential philosophers refer to the genuine person as one who is authentic.

Rogers (1977) discusses the fundamental conditions that may be observed when person-centered learning develops in a school. He states:

> The political implications of person-centered education are clear: the student retains his power and control over himself; he shares in the responsible choices and decisions; the facilitator provides the climate for these aims (p. 74).

Humanistic psychologists, therefore, focus on the loving, positive, creative and healthy individual. May (1969, p. 289) eloquently states: "Care is a state in which something does matter; care is the opposite of apathy. Care is . . . the source of human tenderness. Fortunate, indeed, is it that care is born in the same act as the infant." The potential of man is unlimited from the humanistic perspective.

Existentialism is a modern twentieth century philosophy which is often credited to Kierkegaard, a philosopher-psychologist-theologian. Much confusion exists in attempting to state an Existential philosophy, for most Existentialists do not choose to be labeled as such. Marler (1975) states that Existentialism as a philosophic system has been an influence in public education since the 1940's. This influence has been a protest focusing on a depersonalization of man in mass society. The Humanistic psychologists, Maslow, Fromm, May, Kelley, Combs and Rogers have attempted to translate Existential thought into education and counseling realities.

According to Morris (1961), the Existentialists believe that the ultimate questions of life cannot be answered with finality; however, trying to answer them is what life is all about. The Existentialist aim of education is to understand oneself first of all (Green, 1967). Basic tenets of Existentialism presented by Bates and Johnson (1972) may help the reader clarify Existential thought as applied to the educational process.

1. Existence precedes essence.

   Existence precedes essence. Man exists and must define himself. Living is a process of self-definition.

2. Man is condemned to freedom.

   Only when man uses the sentence of freedom to make conscious choices is he really alive. Man must choose for himself and accept full responsibility for the consequences of those choices. Being aware of the implications of his freedom, Existential man stands up to it as best he can.

3. When man chooses, he chooses for all men.

   As man makes choices he is aware that he is the only representative of mankind he has and therefore, inherent in each choice is the implication that this choice is best for every man.

4. Man defines himself only through his actions.

   Man defines himself only through what he does, not by what he says he is going to do nor what he intends to do. According to Existentialists the final relevancy is action. Feelings are relevant and worth exploration only in understanding the barriers to action.

5. Two worlds exist—the world of objective reality and the world of subjective reality.

   A world of objective reality exists and is more or less knowable by scientific laws to man. However, a world of subjective reality governed by more or less unknown psychological laws exists and is only tentatively knowable by man.

The brief discussion of Humanistic psychology and Existential philosophy have been presented as the roots of education for Design C.

Basic Beliefs: Are Yours Similar?

The Definition of Man. The reader is encouraged to contemplate either agreement or disagreement with the following basic assumptions relative to his/her definition of man:

1. Man is described meaningfully in terms of his consciousness.
2. Man is greater than the sum of his parts.
3. Man defines his own human potential through choices.
4. Individual perceptions are the only reality known to man.
5. Man is free when he chooses responsibly.
6. Basic human values are a direct extension of man's nature and are not relative.
7. Man can only be studied as a whole.
8. Man has an inherent tendency toward self-actualization and productivity.

If you were in agreement with these assumptions then you are probably in accord with those who believe man is inherently inclined toward goodness. Man is seen as cooperative and constantly seeking experiences that enhance his/her unique self. Individual perceptions are the only reality known to man.

Motivation. All educators function with some basic beliefs concerning motivation. Since motivation plays a central role in the learning process, it is imperative that educators clarify their beliefs in this important area:

1. The desire to learn comes from within the individual.
2. True learning occurs when the experience is internalized.
3. The level of aspiration set by the learner affects the learning process and achievement.
4. Children are innately curious and will explore their environment without adult intervention.
5. Exploratory behavior is self-perpetuating.
6. Children who understand and who are involved in what they are doing can create their own methods of accomplishing educational tasks.

Individuals agreeing with these assumptions regard the person as the initiator of his/her own learning tasks. The most desirable rewards are internal in nature and are a reflection of self satisfaction.

Learning Conditions. What do you consider the essential requirements necessary for learning to take place? How do people learn? Respond to the assumptions listed below and test your beliefs relative to conditions of learning against those inherent in Design C:

1. Children display natural exploratory behavior when threat is absent.
2. Learning emerges in the flow and continuity of man's total experiencing and growing.
3. Children receive satisfaction from work, have pride in achievement, enjoy the process and gain a sense of worthiness from contribution, pleasure in association and stimulation of motivation from reasonable new challenges.
4. Play and work are synonomous activities for young children.
5. Children are perceptually closer to the learning situation than are teachers: subsequently, they see and feel what is needed and are capable of self-direction.
6. When children understand the purpose of the activity in which they are engaged, their cognitive curiosity becomes extensive.
7. If a child is fully involved in and is having fun with an activity, learning is taking place.

Those who subscribe to these assumptions recognize that the learner is perceptually closer to the

learning situation than are teachers: subsequently, they see and feel what is needed and are capable of self-direction. Learning emerges in the flow and continuity of man's total experiencing and growing. There cannot be stated outcomes of learning (MacDonald, Wolfram, and Zaret, 1973).

Social Learning. How do children acquire the attitudes and behaviors that allow them to function as members of society? Below is a list of assumptions which the reader may wish to consider:

1. Man is a social being who seeks active involvement with others.
2. Man creates his own environment.
3. When man chooses he chooses for all men.
4. Man tends to select groups which agree with his own opinions; there is a tendency to break off contact with contradictory views.

If you agree with these assumptions then you probably accept that man creates his/her own environment. The individual is central to his/her own idiosyncratic universe.

Intellectual Development. Take a few moments to consider the following assumptions relative to intellectual development as advocated by Design C proponents:

1. The less planned adult intervention, the greater intellectual gains of the child.
2. Learning involves creating relationships. Intellectual development proceeds from "wholes" to "parts" or from a simplified whole to more complex wholes.
3. Verbal abstractions should follow direct experience with objects and ideas, not precede nor substitute for them.

According to persons subscribing to Design C, intellectual development proceeds from "wholes" to "parts" or from a simplified whole to more complex wholes. Intellectual potential already exists within the individual as opposed to a phenomenon to be developed or realized.

Knowledge. Is knowledge understanding or acquaintance with facts or awareness? Once again the reader is asked to react to a set of assumptions:

1. Knowledge is a model created by the individual that makes sense out of encounters with the external conditions in the environment.
2. The process associated with the development of new knowledge and new insights is greater in significance than simply the act of receiving or transmitting knowledge.
3. Knowledge is personal.
4. Little or no information exists which is essential for everyone to acquire.
5. The quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing.

Design C advocates submit that the only thing man can be certain of is that he/she experiences a stream of thoughts and feelings. Information becomes knowledge only when it takes on personal meaning for the individual. Truth is an individual matter.

Society. The final set of assumptions in this section deal with the concept of society and are presented below:

1. Society has existence in man's minds.
2. Society provides a system of universals.
3. The school's primary task is individual; an incidental task of the school is social.
4. The way to improve civilization is by improving the quality of individuals, not by improving institutions.

Those who subscribe to these assumptions specify that the way to improve society is through improving the quality of individuals, not through improving institutions. The tendency is toward an equalitarian society.

It is hoped that the reader has contemplated the assumptions inherent in Design C that were presented relative to the definition of man, motivation, the conditions of learning, social learning, intellectual development, knowledge and society, and has now had an opportunity to clarify his/her beliefs according to the three psychological-philosophical camps presented in the manuscript. Are your beliefs more like one of the camps than the others?

The translation of educational beliefs into daily practice has been left to each individual and the results often have been disappointing and confusing. The remainder of this section will focus on the translation of Humanistic psychology and Existential philosophy into educational practice.

Educational Practices

Instruction. Advocates of Design C submit that the task in a school environment (learning) is the same for both teacher and student. MacDonald

(1968, p. 38) establishes that, "A person is not a bundle of needs or interests, or unique purposes that can be directed or guided or developed to someone's satisfaction." Learning is the lifelong process of acquiring personal meaning. Any educational experience that does not focus on the person must necessarily be relegated to the realm of training and can hardly be classified as an educational experience. According to Design C proponents, the purposes of schooling are to foster the unlimited potential of the child to love, to learn, to create, and to grow.

To release children to become whoever they may be, requires a basic trust on the part of teachers of the self-fulfilling potential of human beings. It requires living with the realization that children must handle their own world in their own time; this educators cannot do for children, regardless of the noble intentions they might have. Children must be guaranteed the privacy of sorting out what is meaningful to them from their environment. Too often the school represents an overstimulating environment, full of well-meaning, overanxious teachers who seem to be afraid of leaving children alone with their thoughts and perceptions of self in a rapidly changing world. Children need time to assimilate input into some kind of a context that has meaning, purpose, and significance for their lives.

The instructional behavior of the teacher who adheres to Design C is determined by the learner and occurs only by invitation from the learner. Choice is inherent in a Design C teacher's classroom.

In summary, instructional behavior translated from Design C focuses on the following considerations:

1. Children are naturally active; they set goals and enjoy striving.
2. Children receive many satisfactions from work, have pride in achievement, enjoy the process, and gain a sense of worthiness from contribution, pleasure in association.
3. Children aspire to independence, self-fulfullment, and are capable of assuming responsibility for their behavior and academic growth.
4. Children who understand and who are involved in what they are doing can create their own methods of accomplishing educational tasks.
5. Children seek to give meaning to their lives by identifying with certain basic groups.
6. Children naturally dislike routine tasks that are boring, and desire new experiences.
7. Children desire to be released, encouraged and assisted.

The learner's needs and interests have priority as the source for curricular development and the learner has the explicit right to develop his uniqueness and individuality. The learner is active in planning his program. This planning involves the means for pursuing objectives and methods of evaluating choices, as well as the task of identifying objectives. This type of involvement encourages the practice of behaviors necessary for becoming an autonomous, self-actualized person.

Curriculum. The curriculum by Design C is dependent upon the potential unfolding and surfacing of an unlimited source of curriculum that lies dormant within the learner's creative reservoir. Academic skills in reading, writing and math are not taught in isolation, but are part of the atmosphere of the room. There is no abdication of the responsibility for giving children the skills that they need, for those skills are seen as tools. Samples (1973) would probably refer to this as "celebrating" the curriculum and Leonard (1972) would probably classify this as the "ecstacy" of learning.

In the final analysis Design C advocates believe that one of the most important factors influencing children's successes in school is the amount of influence they have over their environment. This includes choosing when and what and how they are going to study.

The curriculum from the Design C perspective can be summarized as follows:

1. The curriculum must be considered dynamic and forever emerging. Curriculum planning requires a balance between input and output.
2. The curriculum should reflect as its source the children of that school.
3. The curriculum environment provides each student with multiple options to explore, i.e., touch, dream, read, count, taste, think, sense, feel, tell, and smell.
4. Curriculum structure exists largely in teacher's and student's minds, not on paper.

Organization. Organization in a Design C school is predicated on function controlling structure, as opposed to structure dictating function. Essentially, this means taking into account the nature of

children and developing an instructional program which allows rather than restricts growth and development. Emphasis is on the individual.

The right of children to be selective in respect to that which they attend is a right that must be respected and cherished in the school. However, in addition to exercising the right to be selective, children have the right of access to the Universe through skills, knowledges, and understanding nurtured in elementary schools. In humane elementary schools children have access rights to all the skills, knowledges and understandings that provide them with the tools for becoming more aware of their total Universe.

Organization is adaptive to the circumstances that occur as a consequence of a time-space blend. Individual children plan their own use of time within limits of personal and social order.

In summary, the organization of the Design C school reflects the following:

1. The organizational design of the school is an expression of the needs, wants, and desires of its clientele.
2. The organization provides for the interdisciplinary nature of education: no area of knowledge can exist independent of all other areas of knowledge.
3. The school should be organized in such a way that it provides opportunity for each student to (a) experience continuity and relatedness in his/her learning, and (b) have a warm, personal relationship with competent teachers.
4. If specialized personnel are used, their work is coordinated with and related to the total program.
5. There must be at least a cluster of children with whom a particular child is thoroughly acquainted.
6. Individuals and groups should not be restricted by delimited content or courses of study.
7. The organizational structure should not result in "labeling" children at an early age.
8. Children are not grouped according to ability.
9. Each major cluster of children includes multiple ages.

Content. Persons associated with Design C raise several significant questions relative to the content taught in school. Are current curricular programs in schools committed to assisting children in developing and/or acquiring those skills necessary for living a rewarding and fruitful life? What are these life skills? Can they be taught? Are we entering an era where education for work, a vocational emphasis, will be relatively unimportant and education for life will be crucial? Can life skills be separated into those classified as primary and those that are secondary? Do we educate for actuality or potentiality?

Questions of this nature are not new nor unique; however, there is concern as to whether or not they receive serious consideration by those responsible for the education of the young. It is imperative that educators re-evaluate the present thrust to ascertain if they are indeed equipping the young with necessary skills for living in an ever transforming world.

Design C educators create educational programs that are concerned with process skills that enable the person to know, to think, to value, to feel, and to act. Berman (1968) defines process skills as those which have an element of ongoingness about them. For too long the educational experience for children has been approached as if, indeed, it were terminal instead of continuous, i.e., third grade placement, fourth grade content, fifth grade experiences and so on. Therefore, the need to reexamine exactly what constitutes the essentials or basic skills is long overdue, according to Design C proponents.

As a minimum, Design C educators believe that the following process skills are needed in order that each student becomes a contributing and participating member of his society: (1) decision making, (2) communication, (3) interdependent growth, and (4) purposeful structuring of one's own life. Each child needs to know how to make decisions. Educators' approach to decision making according to Design C has been to teach problem solving; however, being sophisticated in problem solving procedures alone does not necessarily guarantee that a child will always make appropriate decisions. Children need to know to what extent emotions, values, information and risk enter into decisions. Generally, the important decisions people make in life are as much determined by their feelings as by what they know.

In order to live a quality life, it is necessary that young children communicate. Typically the school attempts to achieve this goal by teaching language arts. Design C advocates believe that educators must extend their concept of communication to include perception and sensitiveness.

Children also need opportunities for independent growth: this encompasses human relationships in the elementary school. Children should experience

giving and receiving. At least one promising approach to achieving this goal is to allow children to work together on tasks.

A most necessary ingredient for quality life is learning how to order and structure one's own life in a purposeful manner. This is a difficult task confronting all people. Children can only learn internal structure in an atmosphere of freedom (Berne, 1964).

If what is important in the Design C school is a quality life for each child, then the eight priorities identified by Berman (1968) could determine the content of a process-oriented curriculum. The eight process-oriented areas she proposes are:

- perceiving
- communicating
- loving
- knowing
- decision making
- patterning
- creating
- valuing

Thus, at the risk of oversimplifying a complex task, we have established the assumption that those process skills identified by Berman serve as a sound base for designing the content of a process-oriented curriculum in the Design C school. We also hypothesize that a youngster who acquires these skills will be equipped to profit from instead of cope with a complex society, or for that matter any society.

The content of the curriculum based in Design C could be summarized as follows:

1. The quality of being is more important than the quality of knowing; knowledge is a means of education, not its end. How a child feels about what he knows is as important as knowing.
2. Knowledge is a function of one's personal integration of experience and therefore does not fall into neatly separate categories of "disciplines."
3. The structure of knowledge is personal and idiosyncratic; it is a function of the synthesis of each child's experience with the world.
4. Little or no knowledge exists which is essential for every child to acquire.
5. It is possible that a child may learn and possess knowledge of a phenomenon and yet be unable to demonstrate it publicly.

Materials and Resources. In Design C schools there is much use of concrete materials; materials may be inexpensive such as wood scraps, cardboard, boxes, spools, buttons, and so on. However, traditional sources such as textbooks, films and media are also available. Multiple copies of traditional materials as opposed to single sets are available. There are trade books and reference works readily available.

In summary then, the materials and resources of the school founded in Design C are:

1. Resources are limited only by teachers' and children's imaginations.
2. Wide use is made of raw materials, trade books, and reference works.

Classification of Learners. In Design C schools the classification of learners is of low priority. The focus is on humane interactions that reflect mutual interest, compassion, and consideration of others. Design C schools have a major responsibility to nurture humane relations among its constituents, and to give this nurturing intellectual significance. Therefore, in the Design C school an atmosphere is provided that helps each child and teacher to reach inward for the unlimited potential to love, to create, to learn, and to grow.

Classification might be described as the phenomenon of personal order applied to the process of becoming and/or growing. We are not speaking of order in the traditional context of rigid structure, but rather of personal order in the sense that a person's position in time and space reflects harmony. In other words, the pupil's state of being has purpose, makes sense to him and he has a firm grasp on some sense of self-direction.

Often learners will seek assistance from teachers and peers in formulating learning goals. However, the learner at all times remains an active participant in the planning. Thus classification is a self-selection process initiated by the learner as he seeks opportunities and activities to fulfill his self-established goals. Therefore, classification of learners is the result of self-selection on the child's part in an environment that encourages the expression of needs in choices.

Time and Space. The utilization of time and space is an expression of personal work habits of the individual students. However, for learning to proceed with order and harmony in a Design C

school, joint scheduling of some activities is necessary. Except for those activities which involve much noise or movement, there is little need for scheduling to avoid distraction. In summary then, individual pupils plan their own use of time within some parameters.

General Physical Description. A key term used in describing the physical environment is "personally involved." At times a child is engaged in deep concentration and at other times is committed to less involved work or relaxation. No time constraint is set for delving into subject matter areas.

Routine is left to the discretion of the teacher and children. Children are given or establish their own options for activities. Furniture ranges from traditional tables, chairs and book cases to stuffy old divans and bean bag chairs. Room arrangements provide for privacy in quiet corners and for space that allows interaction between larger groups. Informality is the key to furniture arrangement.

When children report to school they usually check in with the teacher and then go to work in various locations. For example, one child may want to finish reading a book, six children may be working on a social studies report, five children may be working on dramatizing a story, three children may seek assistance from a peer tutor in developing math skills, and eight children will be working with the teacher on reading skills, and so on. Each is engaged in an activity that is appropriate in accommodating his/her needs and wants.

In summary, the physical environment of the Design C school is intended to accommodate multiple learning styles and needs.

Evaluation. Evaluation is solicited by the learner and the norm is self-established. Evaluation data are available to the child upon his request and represent a shared experience as opposed to being imposed from without. The child is furnished with data and encouraged to analyze and interpret them for him/herself.

Since the Design C teacher is process oriented, critical thinking or aiding students in developing their own rationales for conclusions is prized. Evaluation is seen as a cooperative venture and is engaged in when the student asks for feedback.

Evaluation in a Design C school can be summarized as follows:

1. Errors are necessarily a part of the learning process; they are to be expected and even desired, for they contain information essential for further learning.
2. Those qualities of a person's learning which can be carefully measured are not necessarily the most important.
3. Objective measures of performance may have a negative effect upon learning.
4. Learning can be assessed intuitively by observing a child working or playing.

Summary

This section presented a brief discussion of both the psychological and philosophical bases of education by Design C. Various assumptions concerning beliefs relative to the definition of man, motivation, learning conditions, social learning, intellectual development, knowledge and society from this particular point of view were presented for contemplation by the reader. A discussion of instructional behavior, curriculum, organizational design, content, materials and resources, classification of learners, time and space, general physical description and evaluation procedures congruent with the beliefs of Humanistic philosophy followed.

Section VI

Epilogue: Language as a Diversion Tool

How does one write a manuscript of this nature without reflecting personal biases? Although we have attempted to demonstrate an objective posture, our beliefs and values have seemed to become evident. We say this not in an apologetic manner but rather from a standpoint of professional integrity.

This has occurred partly because we have used the only tool that we know available for exchanging information about schooling: Language. The reason that we chose philosophic inquiry as the research tool for descriptive analysis is that values and beliefs do not seem to lend themselves entirely to scientific inquiry as a mode of investigation. And whether we like it or not, decisions determining the direction of schooling seem to reflect the belief systems of those who have the power to make such decisions. It is hoped that the manuscript has served

as a catalyst to those in power in assisting to clarify their beliefs and ultimately to assist in determining if that which they advocate is really what they desire.

It is as if the "enthusiasm" for power, control, change and innovation, the watchwords of the 60's, has been replaced by the "fear" of the 70's. Both movements were and are grounded in emotion and tend to result in reactionary positions. Doing something about something seems to be right. Again we submit, if we don't know why we do what we do, at best we do it poorly, or we don't even know when it is done.

Advocates of the various educational camps discussed in this manuscript use language in an attempt to homogenize social reality and to eliminate social reality and to eliminate disparate perceptions. Edelman (1973) establishes that language used by these educators tends to establish their reality and subtly justify their actions. This function is not unique to any one of these educational philosophic camps.

Discussions relative to the purposes of schooling must opt for one logically coherent philosophy of education. As Roberts (1976, p. 321) succintly states, "It is impossible to practice the ideas of Skinner and Chomsky simultaneously." In spite of good intentions educators cannot easily make congruent that which is incongruent.

Critics of schools generally assume one of two positions: (1) they charge that the school lacks rigor, charity of purpose, efficiency and a prudent economy, or (2) schools are a monolithic bureaucy, preoccupied with convenience and tradition, depersonalized and uninterested in each child's individuality, and removed from the realities of children's life environment (Rubin, 1969, p. 4).

Although well-intended, proponents of differing positions are more concerned with political rhetoric than with what is best for children and society. We would suggest that theory-praxis congruency become a worthy goal of vocal proponents of the diverse camps in an attempt to provide children with an honest and good schooling experience.

It seems safe to establish that proponents of various philosophic camps are more concerned with finding better ways of doing what they are already doing than with raising questions as to why it is that they do what they do. Educational issues are a consequence of diverse conceptualization of reality and values.

In the development of this manuscript it was never intended that any particular set of values be endorsed. What was intended was to suggest that those in power to make educational decisions might well afford to spend more time and effort examining the philosophic roots of critical educational issues and problems. We strongly recommend that a focus be placed on developing and understanding basic systems of philosophy, as well as understanding linear relationships between educational points of view and day to day school methods, procedures, and methodology. The hoped-for result of this kind of effort would be that educators would demonstrate a higher level of sophistication in becoming more sensitive and aware of hidden or salient biases involved in recommendations and/or pressure to subscribe to current fads and trends in education. This was the purpose of this manuscript.

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The *Curriculum Bulletin* will discontinue publication on December 31, 1979. After 40 years of publication, this has been a difficult decision for the Editors to make, but (a) the difficulties of obtaining suitable manuscripts, and (b) the increasing costs of publishing have led the Editors to this decision.

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HBW